

COMPETITION IN ORGANISATIONS OF DIFFERENT SIZES

Juhász Tímea PhD⁽¹⁾ – Kálmán Botond⁽²⁾ – Tóth Arnold PhD⁽³⁾

⁽¹⁾ consultant, ⁽²⁾ student

Eötvös Loránd University Budapest, ⁽³⁾ associate professor
Budapest Business School

Abstract

Competitions have always been a part of our lives. Even at school, and later, at work, we have had to fight for recognition and fight to be the best. All of this, day after day. This report explores people's approach to competition in organisations of various sizes, and their approach to what the effects of this are. The authors believe that people's opinions on competition, even after multiple aspects have been examined, remain constant, regardless of the size of the organisation.

Key words: competition, organisational culture, differences

JEL classification: M 14

Introduction

In current economic literature, competition is one of the most prominent topics. It can be discussed on a macro-level (on the global level between countries and regions), where there is territorial competition. It can be approached on a meso-level (between companies and organisations), where institutional competition may be seen. Lastly, competition also exists on the micro-level and between individuals (employees, managers), and this is the personal level. The current study examines the latter of these, focusing on the competition between employees at the same workplace.

Summary of Literature

Competition and competitiveness at the workplace may be approached from multiple angles, depending on the aim of being competitive, the participants and depending on how objectively the results can be measured. Traditionally, competition between people stemmed from the desire for cheap labour. (Fregan et al., 2018.) Consequently, employees primarily competed for the job itself, and so that they would get it, rather than anyone else.

It is worth examining the types of areas (focusing on specific factors) where competition at the workplace can be seen. From the 1920s, the type of scientific management created by Taylor, being ahead of its time, placed a great deal of emphasis onto the training of employees. His primary aim was to increase the speed of the employees' work. (Khorasani & Almasifard, 2017)

By today, one of the main motivating factors is having qualifications and the necessary abilities, or the lack of them. In 2007 Csehné and in 2016, Kárpátiné and her colleagues showed that managers believe that increasing their employees' level of education and qualifications increases the competitiveness of employees. In addition, while competing the employees' competences, different skills and abilities also count apart from the knowledge in the selection process (Cseh-Papp et al, 2017; Juhászné-Varga, 2016; Varga et al, 2015; Varga et al, 2013).

In a study issued in 2018, the author declares that companies –where the majority of ownership is Hungarian and where the common working language is Hungarian- just partly

recognize the role and importance of foreign languages necessary for the operation of the companies, where the knowledge of foreign languages might mean a competitive advantage on the labour market. (Horváth-Csikós, 2018). However, while one can find almost all types of training at larger companies (coaching, training, courses, further training abroad), the managers of smaller companies, primarily due to financial implications, prefer online courses. (Csehné, 2007; Kárpátiné et al, 2016, Kunos et al, 2016, Veresné Valentinyi 2018) The importance of talent and knowledge in the American labour market and that of talent management is also highlighted by experts (Czeglédi et al. 2013, Czeglédi-Veresné Valentinyi, 2018a, 2018b, 2018c). According to the vice president of the American Management Association International (AMA), companies require a coherent and genuine program for the gifted and talented. They should provide a clear perspective of future improvements, training and growth opportunities for employees (Ryan, 2015). They should also only recruit from outside the company, if there is no one to fill the position from within the company. (Ryan, 2015) This workplace philosophy expresses companies' loyalty towards and recognition of its staff. Staff loyalty essentially determines the types of opportunities that the company offers, in addition to how the company appreciates their work, as loyalty is also one aspect of good performance (Bencsik – Tóth-Bordásné Marosi, 2012).

Some employees find that the best indication of their work is when their superior is the most satisfied with their work. The relationship between employer and employee satisfaction has been studied for over one hundred years. Thorndike started to study this in 1911, however, the topic has only been seen to be conceptually sound since the 1970s. It was in this era when Vroom created his expectancy theory. The essence of this is that employees are motivated by set rewards, and so because of this, employees reach their goals with a feeling of success. Interestingly, House's path-goal theory was born at almost the same time. It essentially states that the basis of employee satisfaction can be found using the appropriate incentives of the management's motivation, while the basis of employer satisfaction is the rewards received from achieving set goals. Because this behavioural pattern is mutually beneficial, it repeats often, helping both the company and the employees to progress. (Guy, 2014; Csehné, 2016; Bencsik, 2007)

Therefore, the relationship between managers and employees can be decisive. There are people in management who have a close relationship with employees, others are more private or keep to themselves. Employees who do have a closer relationship with managers are able to access resources (help, information) which helps to increase their competitiveness, in comparison to their colleagues. (Li & Liao, 2014) This, however, may also be noticed by their colleagues and, reacting to this 'inequality', they may show hostility or have an inhibitory effect towards colleagues in the 'inner circle'. (Tse et al., 2013) At the same time, the appropriate employer-employee relationship undoubtedly has a positive effect on employees' performance and competitiveness. (Park et al, 2015) Good relationships between the management and employees play an important role regarding workplace satisfaction for both categories. Amicable relationships create a positive and favourable work environment, while simultaneously increasing employees' workplace preference. (Sailaya & Naik, 2016) However, bad, unsatisfactory relationships have the exact opposite effect: they demotivate those involved and result in negative emotions and stress. (Tse et al., 2013) A further drawback is that it decreases employees' loyalty towards the company, while also making it difficult for them to identify with the company's goals and vision. Lidqvist's results highlight that, regarding employer-employee relationships, it is not local (particular to a given country) cultural characteristics that are the most important. Lidqvist conducted a study of the European and Asian employees of a Finnish multinational company. Interestingly, in the company's Asian bases, it was the European management culture which

was implemented, and the Asian employees were more satisfied with this than with the management system customary in their country. This satisfaction was primarily with the mutual and bilateral nature of employer-employee relationships, and the fact that it was based on openness and honesty. (Lindqvist, 2018) However, a pre-requisite for this was that it was characteristic of this employer (Snellman) to notice its employees' values and honour them, e.g., a healthy lifestyle, sport, financial assistance with further training.

Another possibility is to compete for the amount of items produced, as pieceworkers do. (Jones et al, 2018) However, there are also performance oriented workplaces. Here, the employees compete in order to achieve the best performance. Therefore, any feedback received regarding performance has an important motivating role. (Bies, 2013) and (Bies et al., 2016)

Being punctual is one of the fundamental aspects of organisational culture. Employees not being punctual shows that they are trying to avoid work, which indicates that they are dissatisfied with the company. (Sailaya & Naik, 2016) In certain professions, punctuality is not merely a characteristic that is appreciated, but one that is a prerequisite (e.g., it is clearly required of drivers of public transport). In these cases, however, it is more a stress factor than a motivating factor, as it decreases performance and increases the/likelihood of errors (Tripathi & Borrión, 2016).

Certain employees measure their success through the amount of time they have spent at one workplace. This is because this information can easily be measured and compared, although it is not necessarily closely linked to their quality of work and their performance. Furthermore, over the years, studies have shown that time spent at work takes away from time spent with family. Therefore, employees who spend too much time at work, experience problems with work-life balance more often, along with its negative effects. (Putnam et al., 2014; Budavári-Takács, Fejes, Kiss, 2017)) The spillover theory provides a good explanation for this phenomenon. In essence, the theory states that there are no boundaries, between one's work and private life, that cannot be crossed. The problems in one area of life, sooner or later, affect performance in the other area as well. The theory was first published by Zedeck in 1992 (Zedeck, 1992), however, since then, even recently, it has been cited in multiple studies. (Mazerolle et al., 2018) It is, therefore, not accidental that alternative working arrangements (flexible working hours, working from home or telecommuting) have become increasingly popular, primarily for younger generations, the main goal of which is to combat the problems of work-life balance (Bencsik – Lőre – Marosi, 2009).

A workplace's competitive atmosphere is dependent on how much individual employees value rewards for more, better or more productive work. This may be an award, a promotion or a pay rise. This competitive situation can especially be seen if the available rewards are only available in a limited quantity. (Sahadev et al., 2014)

However, organisations believe that such a competitive environment has a positive effect on employees, helping them to focus their efforts. It has become clear that regarding psychological competitiveness, it emphasises negative effects more than positive ones. The results show that such an environment is more likely to have a negative effect on employees, causing an increase in fluctuation, burnout, workplace stress and a conflict of work-life balance. (Ghadi, 2018)

That being said, a correctly constructed competitive situation can increase effectiveness and can develop employees as well. (Formann & Damsa, 2018) This is called a constructive competitive environment. For example, both problem solving skills and the learning process become more effective. (Tjosvold et al., 2003)

Method and Sample Specification

The study concerning competitiveness was conducted in 2018. A survey was conducted in the form of an online questionnaire. The snowball method was used during the sample collection stage, therefore, the study is not representative. The quantitative study contained closed questions, which were built upon metric and nominal variables. The questions could be divided into four categories. The first category contained questions that specified the sample, the second contained questions about the competitive situation in primary school, while the third category examined secondary schools (until the age of 18) and the types of competition present there. Finally, competitive workplace situations were analysed.

When analysing the results, both one and multiple variable statistical analyses were used: frequency, mean analysis, ANOVA and factor analysis.

The questionnaire was completed by 308 participants.

The sample has the following specifications:

The participants' gender: 42% of participants were men, 58% were women.

The average age of participants was 25 years old.

According to the distribution of the participants, regarding location, the largest proportion, 54% of participants were from the region of Central Hungary.

Regarding qualifications, 66% of participants had a matura, or middle level qualification. 18% had a higher level qualification or OKJ (vocational qualification), 14% of participants had a degree, while 2% did not have a matura.

36.4% of participants worked at a large enterprise, while for micro, small and medium sized enterprises, the percentage was 20%-20% respectively.

80% of all participants were employees, 8%-8% were in middle or upper management, or were the owners of the company.

In the remainder of the report, the following hypothesis will be examined.

Hypothesis

The participants of the study, who work at different sized companies, have different opinions on competition between colleagues in organisations.

Results

The study analysed workplace competitiveness from a number of different angles. Firstly, it was important to establish what causes competitive situations to arise at a workplace. Numerous causes were listed, from which the participants, using a five point scale, had to decide how true the given statement was, regarding competitiveness at their workplace. The number one corresponded to not true or accurate, whereas the number five meant that the statement was wholly true and accurate. Table 1 shows the average of the results and standard deviation present.

Table 1: The sources of competition in the workplace (average and standard deviation)

Main causes of competition between employees	Mean	Std. Deviation
The nature of the job requires this.	3.58	1.099
It can be a way to progress in this profession.	4.05	0.959
It may result in a pay rise.	4.00	1.005
There are those that like to compete, even at work.	3.86	1.029
It can be used as a tool for express loyalty to the company.	3.05	1.058
It can be used as an incentive to keep the best employees.	3.27	1.142
It is the best way to maximize the effectiveness of employees.	3.36	1.111
It increases company performance.	3.62	1.072
It helps the fluctuation of less desirable employees.	3.10	1.077
It increases employees' loyalty to the company.	3.44	1.101

Source: own table

The data in the table shows that the main cause for competition at the workplace is to be able to gain a professional and financial advantage, and it is clear that employees decided to be competitive independently of the companies' stance. The participants are not aware of whether or not this increases their individual performance, however, they do clearly notice an increase in the organisations' performance. This is an interesting result because, based on this, competition for loyalty within the companies actually has a more negative effect. This result shows that competition is essentially destructive and, rather than placing emphasis on cooperation, it creates animosity at work. The question remains, however, that if there is a lack of cooperation, what causes a company's performance to noticeably increase? The reason, however, why this cannot be answered correctly, is that the large standard deviation suggests that the participants were not in agreement over this.

The specific variables (that is to say the source of the competition) can, in many cases, be proved to correlate with each other. Similarly, Pearson's correlation method shows that the more competitiveness is one of the main tools for getting forwards, the more likely it is that a pay rise is one of the main goals. (Pearson's correlation: 0.595 sign.: 0.000 $p < 0.01$) Furthermore, it can also be shown that the more a given career requires competition, the more likely that competition may be used as a tool in that career (Pearson's correlation: 0.443 sign.: 0.000 $p < 0.01$).

The authors examined how the answers given by employees, in various sized organisations, differed. In only one case could the ANOVA analysis show a significant difference: professional development as an aim.

Table 2: The source of competition, regarding company size (ANOVA, p<0.05)

Source of Competition		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
It can be a tool for professional development.	Between Groups	7.626	3	2.542	2.814	0.039
	Within Groups	274.643	304	0.903		
	Total	282.269	307			

Source: own table

The averages show that having professional development as an aim can predominantly be seen at large enterprises (average: 4.23), while it can be seen the least at small-sized enterprises (average:3.87). Table 3 presents the sources of competition according to company size and, more significantly, according where these sources of competition are prevalent.

Table 3: Where sources of competition is the most likely to occur

Source of Competition	Prevalence
The nature of the job requires this.	Large enterprises
It can be a way to progress in this profession.	Large enterprises
It may result in a pay rise.	Micro-enterprise
There are those that like to compete, even at work.	Micro-enterprises
It can be used as a tool for express loyalty to the company.	Micro-enterprises
It can be used as an incentive to keep the best employees.	Micro-enterprises
It is the best way to maximize the effectiveness of employees.	Medium-sized enterprises
It increases company performance.	Large enterprises
It helps the fluctuation of less desirable employees.	Large enterprises
It increases employees' loyalty to the company.	Micro-enterprises
The nature of the job requires this.	Micro-enterprises

Source: own table

It can clearly be seen that it is primarily at micro-enterprises and large enterprises where there are distinct tendencies regarding the source of competition.

However, the question of whom is competing must also be asked. Similarly to the sources of competition, a five point scale was used, in which participants would select, based on the likelihood of the situation, between whom the competition takes place within the workplace:

Table 4: Where does workplace competition exist and between whom does it exist? (Average and standard deviation).

Where Competition Exists in Organisation and Between Whom it Exists	Mean	Std. Deviation
Between employees who are on the same level, but have different qualifications.	3.03	1.275
Between employees who are on a different level, but have the same qualifications.	2.80	1.240
Between employees who are on a different level, and have different qualifications.	2.54	1.222
Between male and female employees who work on the same level.	2.52	1.304
Between male and female employees who work on a different level.	2.17	1.166
Between male employees who work on the same level.	2.90	1.328
Between male employees who work on a different level.	2.48	1.237
Between female employees who work on the same level.	3.24	1.355
Between female employees who work on a different level.	2.75	1.349
Between employees who are on the same level and have the same qualifications.	3.29	1.279

Source: own table

Participants were asked to state how they encounter competitive situations, based on gender, qualifications and positions. Regarding genders, workplace competition may be seen primarily among female employees who work on the same level. This phenomenon is less characteristic of male employees that have the same position. This can also be commonly seen with employees with the same level of employment, however, with different qualifications. It is probable that the latter of the employees can distinguish themselves with the help of competitions, build their careers and be promoted to higher positions.

The ANOVA analyses show that, based on the statements above, there were no significant differences. Table 5 examines company size and characteristics, as well as how these relate to the persons competing and the places of workplace competition:

Table 5: Where and between who is workplace competition most prevalent (based on company size)

Where and between whom does workplace competition occur?	Prevalence
Between employees who are on the same level, but have different qualifications.	Large enterprises
Between employees who are on a different level, but have the same qualifications.	Large enterprises
Between employees who are on a different level, and have different qualifications.	Mikrovállalat
Between male and female employees who work on the same level.	Medium-sized enterprises
Between male and female employees who work on a different level.	Micr-enterprises
Between male employees who work on the same level.	Medium-sized enterprises
Between male employees who work on a different level.	Small enterprises
Between female employees who work on the same level.	Medium-sized enterprises
Between female employees who work on a different level.	Medium-sized enterprises
Between employees who are on the same level and have the same qualifications.	Medium-sized enterprises

Source: own table

The data in the table shows that, in this sample, competition both within and between genders is the most common at medium-sized enterprises. However, competition stemming from qualifications is very common within large enterprises.

Logically, one of the most important parts of the competitive process is the reward. Therefore, the authors also asked about how organisations reward their best employees. 78 participants stated that the company that they work at does not reward employees if they excel and positively stand out from the team. Those who stated that there are rewards at their workplace could choose from a number of possibilities. 41% of employers give monetary rewards, 31% praise employees for their work, 11% have ‘employee of the month’ at their workplace, whereas 10% stated that they are also willing to offer promotions.

Finally, the question of how competitive situations are perceived by employees arose. In other words, the effects that competition between colleagues has on an organisation. Similarly to before, participants were asked to evaluate a set of statements using a five point

scale. The number one represented an extremely negative effect, while choosing the number five signified that it worked very well. Less than five per cent of participants believe that any form of competition has a completely negative effect on the organisation. On the other hand, 32% of participants believe that competition has a positive effect. It is interesting, however, that almost half of the participants were unable to decide whether workplace competition is or is not beneficial. The authors also examined whether the size of the organisation that participants worked at had an effect on the results. The ANOVA analysis did not find any significant differences: $F: 0.828$ $df: 3$ $sign.: 0.479$ $p > 0.05$. Comparing the averages, it can be stated that it is predominantly employees at medium-sized enterprises who believe that competition has a good effect on companies (average: 3.37), while employees of small-sized enterprises are the least likely to have this viewpoint (average: 3.11).

Conclusions

The current work presents some of the results of the authors' 2018 study on this topic. The study examined competitive situations within the workplace. In light of the analyses above, it can be said that employees tend to have a similar opinion on workplace competition, regardless of the size of the organisation which they work at. This, however, does not mean that employees agree about the different elements of competition (the authors' previous studies demonstrate this). Interestingly, the majority of participants, as a whole, were unable to form a decision on whether competition actually has a positive or negative effect on an organisation. However, the analyses could help define the types of organisations where competition was most prevalent according to gender, qualifications, levels and positions. In addition, the sources of competition for a variety of different sized organisations could also be seen.

References

- Barna, I., & Székelyi, M. (2008). *Túlélőkészlet az SPSS-hez*. Budapest: Typotex Kiadó.
- Bencsik, A. & Tóth-Bordásné Marosi, I. (2012). *Szervezeti magatartás, avagy a bizalom ereje*, Universitas Győr Kht.
- Bencsik, A. (2007). *A jó pap és az üzleti stratégia*, LLL. Perfect Power Kft. Magyarország Alapítvány Tudástőke Konferenciák 1. Hírlevél, www.tudastoke.hu
- Bencsik, A., Lőre, V., & Marosi, I., (2009). From individual memory to organizational memory (intelligence of organizations) *World Academy of Science, Engineering and Technology, International Journal of Economics and Management Engineering*, Vol.3, No.8, p.1699-1704.
- Bies, R. J. (2013). The delivery of bad news in organizations: A framework for analysis. *Journal of Management*, 39(1), 136–162, 39(1), 136-162.
- Bies, R. J., Tripp, T. M., & Shapiro, D. L. (2016). Abusive leaders or Master Motivators? In N. M. Ashkanasy, R. J. Bennett, and Mark J., & M. J. Martinko (szerk.), *Understanding the High Performance Workplace* (old.: 252-276). New York: Taylor & Francis.
- Budavári-Takács I., Fejes E., Kiss I., (2017): A munka és magánélet egyensúlyának kialakítása, problémák, In: Lakatosné Szuhai Györgyi, Poór József (szerk.) *Tudatos életvezetés-Projektszemlélet a magánéletben*. 629 p. Győr: Publio Kiadó, pp. 95-118. (ISBN:9789634432944)
- Csehné Papp I. (2007): *Az oktatás és a munkaerőpiac állapota közötti kapcsolat Magyarországon*, *Gazdálkodás*, 1, pp. 60-66.

- Csehné Papp I. (2016): Elvárások és realitások a munka világában. TAYLOR Gazdálkodás-és szervezéstudományi folyóirat. 2. pp. 5-11.
- Cseh-Papp, I, Szira Z.,Varga E. (2017): The situation of graduate employees on the Hungarian labour market. BUSINESS ETHICS AND LEADERSHIP 1 : 2 pp. 5-11., 7 p.
- Czeglédi Cs.- Marosné Kuna Zs.-Hajós L. (2013): Current challenges of talent management in the V4 countries with special respect to Hungary TRENDY V PODNIKÁNÍ - BUSINESS TRENDS 2/2013: pp. 31-38.
- Czeglédi Cs.- Marosné Kuna Zs.-Hajós L. (2013): Current challenges of talent management in the V4 countries with special respect to Hungary TRENDY V PODNIKÁNÍ - BUSINESS TRENDS 2/2013: pp. 31-38.
- Czeglédi Cs., Veresné Valentinyi K. (2018a) Individual Coaching in the Service of Retaining Talent in Private Businesses, ZARZADZANIE ZASOBAMI LUDZKIMI / HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT 125: 6 pp. 83-96., 14 p. (2018)
- Czeglédi Cs., Veresné Valentinyi K. (2018b) Group Coaching in Talent Management. In: Tóth, Péter; Maior, Enikő; Horváth, Kinga; Kautnik, András; Duchon, Jenő; Sass, Bálint (szerk.) Kutatás és innováció a Kárpát-medencei oktatási térben: III. Kárpát-medencei Oktatási Konferencia: tanulmánykötet. Budapest, Magyarország: Óbudai Egyetem Trefort Ágoston Mérnökpedagógiai Központ, (2018) pp. 309-324., 17 p.
- Formann, R., & Damsa, A. (2018). Videójátékoktól a munka világáig – játékosipológiák és munkahelyi motiváció. Információs Társadalom, XVIII (1), 18-25.
- Fregan, B., Kocsis, I., & Rajnai, Z. (2018.). Az Ipar 4.0 és a digitalizáció kockázatai. XXIII. Fiatal Műszakiak Tudományos Ülésszaka, (old.: 87-90). Kolozsvár.
- Ghadi, M. Y. (2018). Empirical examination of theoretical model of workplace envy: evidences from Jordan. Management Research Review, 41(12), 1438-1459.
- Guy, S. A. (2014). Examining the Relationship Between The Quantities of Active Small Business Lending Institutions and The Quantities of Active Small Businesses per City in the State of New York. Rochester: Fisher Digital Publications.
- Horváth-Cs. G. (2018). The practice of knowledge transfer and language mentoring at multinational companies operating in Hungary - based on empirical research, International Journal of Latest Research in Humanities and Social Science 1 : 4 pp. 52-57.
- Jones, D., Tonin, M., & Vlassopoulos, M. (2018). Paying for what kind of performance? Performance pay and multitasking in mission-oriented jobs (Working Paper). Milan: Dondena Working Papers.
- Juhászné Klér A., Varga E. (2016): The Examination of the Factors Determining Career Engagement for Students Preparing for a Social Job. PRACTICE AND THEORY IN SYSTEMS OF EDUCATION 10 : 4 pp. 363-374., 12 p.
- Kárpátiné, J. D., Vágány, J., & Fenyvesi, É. (2016). Fejlődünk, hogy fejlődhessünk? Vezetéstudomány, XLVII.(12), 72-82.
- Khorasani, S. T., & Almasifard, M. (2017). Evolution of Management Theory within 20 Century: A Systemic Overview of Paradigm Shifts in Management. International Review of Management and Marketing, 7(3), 134-137.
- Kunos I., Ábri J., Erős I., Szabó G., Valentinyi K., Kiss I., Wiesner E. (2016) Coaching. In: Poór, József (szerk.) Menedzsment-tanácsadási kézikönyv: innováció, megújulás, fenntarthatóság. Budapest, Magyarország : Akadémiai Kiadó, (2016) pp. 511-532., 22 p.
- Li, A. N., & Liao, H. (2014). How do leader-member exchange quality and differentiation affect performance in teams? An integrated multilevel dual process model. Journal of Applied Psychology (99), 847-866.
- Lindqvist, P. (2018). Leadership in a multi-cultural business environment. Kokkola: Centria University of Applied Sciences.

- Mazerolle, S. M., Goodman, A., Eason, C. M., Spak, S., Scriber, K. C., Voll, C. A., . . . Simone, E. (2018). National Athletic Trainers' Association Position Statement: Facilitating Work-Life Balance in Athletic Training Practice Settings. *Journal of Athletic Training* 2018;53(8):796–811, 53(8), 796-811.
- Park, S., Sturman, M. C., Vanderpool, C., & Chan, E. (2015). Only time will tell: The changing relationships between LMX, job performance and justice. *Journal of Applied Psychology* (100), 660-680.
- Putnam, L. L., Myers, K. K., & Gailliard, B. M. (2014). Examining the tensions in workplace flexibility and exploring options for new directions. *Human Relations*, 64(4), 413-440.
- Ryan, P. (2015). Companies Ambivalent on Hiring from Within (Press Release). New York: American Management Association International.
- Sailaya, R., & Krishna Naik, C. N. (2016). Job Satisfaction Among Employees of Select Public and Private Banks in Rayalaseema Region, A.P. *International Journal of Research in Management*, 2(6), 49-62.
- Sahadev, S., Seshanna, S., & Purani, K. (2014). Effects of competitive psychological climate, workfamily conflict and role conflict on customer orientation: the case of call centre employees. *Journal of Indian Business Research*, 6(1), 70-84.
- Tjosvold, D., Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R. T., & Sun, H. (2003). Can Interpersonal Competition Be Constructive Within Organizations? *The Journal of Psychology*, 137, 1, 63–84. , 137(1), 63-84.
- Tripathi, K., & Borrión, H. (2016). Safe, secure or punctual? A simulator study of train driver response to reports of explosives on a metro train. *Security Journal*, 29(1), 87-105.
- Tse, H. H., Lam, C. K., Lawrence, S. A., & Huang, X. (2013). When my supervisor dislikes you more than me: The effect of dissimilarity in leader-member exchange on coworkers' interpersonal emotion and perceived help. *Journal of Applied Psychology* (98), 974-988.
- Veresné Valentinyi K. (2018) Coaching, a mindenható módszer. In: Tóth, Péter; Maior, Enikő; Horváth, Kinga; Kautnik, András; Duchon, Jenő; Sass, Bálint (szerk.) *Kutatás és innováció a Kárpát-medencei oktatási térben: III. Kárpát-medencei Oktatási Konferencia: tanulmánykötet*. Budapest, Magyarország: Óbudai Egyetem Trefort Ágoston Művelődéstudományi Központ, (2018) pp. pp 48-59, 11 p.)
- Zedeck, S. (1992). *Work, families, and organizations*. San Francisco: JosseyBass.